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ABSTRACT

This pamphlet explores the dynamics of world population, highlighting steps world leaders can take to address population problems and improve the lives of people worldwide. With jet-age transportation and electronic communication, economic and social interdependence of nations is greater than ever before and is likely to increase in the future. Politically, the most sensitive area is migration, particularly for low-growth areas close to high-growth areas: Europe's proximity to North Africa and the Middle East, and the United States proximity to the Caribbean Basin countries. Trade and financial relationships also channel the effects of internal population pressures across international borders. The response to population growth between now and the time population stabilization occurs will shape the world that future generations will share. (SM)

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Global Population Trends

Challenges Facing
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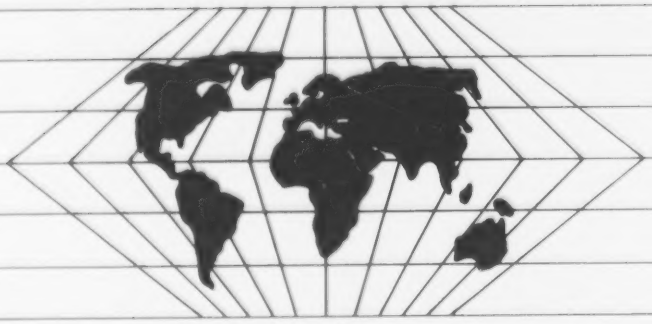

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Global Population Trends: Challenges Facing World Leaders

ARE YOU INTERESTED IN POPULATION?

When asked if they are interested in population, many people reply "no, I'm not interested in family planning." Yet population issues cover much more than birth control. Read the statements below to find out if you are interested in population.

- In the year 2000 at least 19 of the poorest nations will be unable to grow enough *food* to feed their people even if they use new technology such as irrigation, fertilizer and pesticides.
- By 2000 poor countries will have half of the *water* per person that they had in 1975 and the availability of water will be halved again by 2035.
- *Desertification* threatens one-third of the land area in Asia, Africa and Latin America, which is not now desert.
- Six hundred million new *jobs* will be needed in developing countries by 2000 just to employ persons already born and soon to enter the work force.
- Many *cities* in poor countries face a doubling of their size in a few decades; for example, Mexico City will grow to 26 million by 2000, larger than the population of the entire state of California today.
- Five million *children* in poor countries die each year from preventable diseases.
- There are an estimated 10 million *refugees* living outside of their countries, most with no hope of returning.
- *Uneven consumption patterns of the world's resources* means that the United States with 5 percent of the world's people consumes 40 percent of world resources each year.
- The proportion of *elderly* in the world's population will double in 30 years creating new challenges for meeting this population's needs.
- High rates of population growth and societies with a large proportion of youth are among factors identified as leading to conflict and *war*.

Population is not necessarily the cause of these problems, but it exacerbates different problems in different contexts and makes solutions to these problems more difficult. Population programs cannot succeed—whether they focus on limiting or increasing births, preventing deaths, or addressing immigration or urban growth—without efforts to raise living standards. Similarly, development policies, plans and programs aimed at increasing food production, creating jobs, improving education and health care, or protecting the environment cannot succeed unless population factors are taken into account.

This reading explores the dynamics of world population. It highlights the steps world leaders can take to address population problems and improve the lives of people worldwide.

USDA-Soil Conservation Service

Urban areas are expanding worldwide, as this photo of the encroachment of Richmond, Virginia, illustrates.

World population history has reached an important turning point. The world's population growth rate peaked at slightly over 2 percent a year in the late 1960s and as of 1986 is down to 1.7 percent and falling. However, the numbers of people added each year continue to mount because these rates apply to a very large base population—4.9 billion in 1986.

Annual numbers added will peak at 89 million a year in the late 1990s and then taper off until world population stabilizes in the last decade of the 21st century at about 10.2 billion, according to current U.N. projections.

"There is no greater threat to women's health and family health than ignorance; and the best remedy for that is education."

—Pan American Health Organization, 1984

Close to 95 percent of this growth is occurring in the less developed countries (LDCs) of Africa, Asia (minus Japan), and Latin America, which now constitute 76 percent of the world population. Fertility rates in these countries are declining except in sub-Saharan Africa, parts of Latin America, and South Asia which includes India and Bangladesh. However, most countries still have far to go before they reach the replacement level of about two births per woman—that is two births to replace two parents. Fertility is below replacement in virtually all more developed countries of Europe and North America, and a few are already experiencing natural decrease (fewer births than deaths).

For LDCs, large numbers will be added before their populations stabilize even after replacement level is reached. This is because a disproportionate share of their populations will continue to be in their childbearing years. While each woman may have fewer children than her mother, there will be more women in their childbearing years as a result of past high fertility. Only after these couples have passed through their childbearing years does a population stop growing. Meanwhile some of the developed nations of Western Europe are witnessing a decline in their population size with labor shortages and a rapidly growing elderly population.

What do these trends mean for the world's people and their leaders? How will efforts to bridge the gap in living standards between LDCs and industrialized countries be affected? What will cause population growth to slow? What will happen to countries whose populations have stopped growing? What new choices and challenges face national leaders worldwide?

The answers to these questions must be examined in light of research findings. From a new debate about whether rapid population growth deters or stimulates economic growth, a more integrated view has emerged—efforts to slow population growth are now seen as complementary to efforts to improve people's health and education, increase incomes and upgrade women's status. Economic and social gains that enhance the desire for smaller families *combined* with access to family planning services have proven most effective in reducing fertility in developing countries.

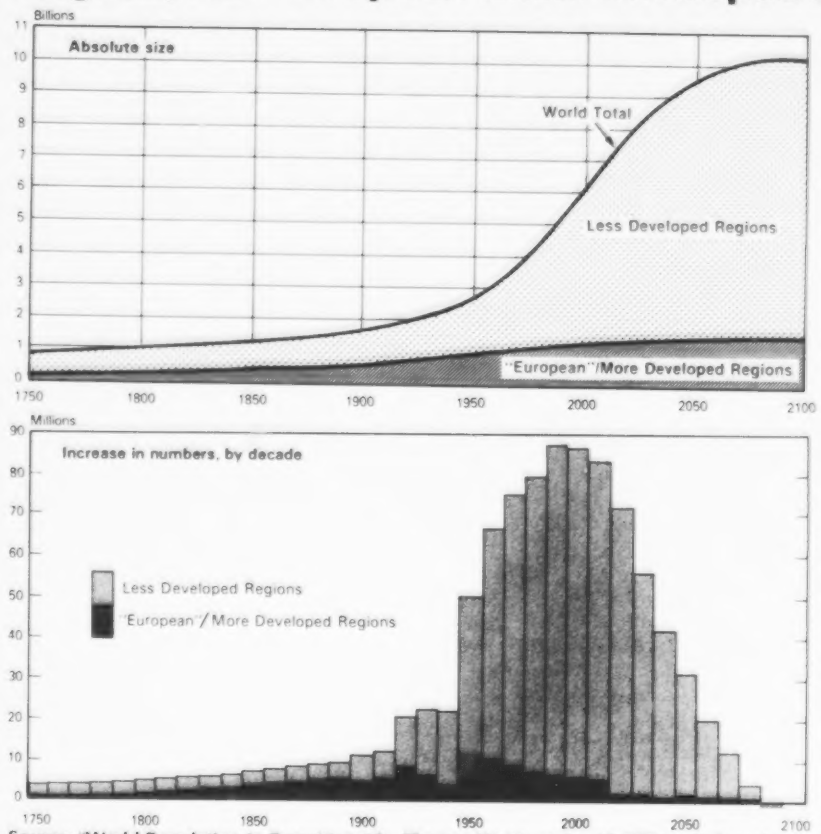
World Population Dynamics: How Did We Get Here? Where Are We Going?

Two periods of major population expansion underlie today's population trends. The first lasted from 1750 to 1950 and was triggered by rises in population growth rates in Europe beginning during the Industrial Revolution in the late 1700s. Before this period, high birth rates were nearly matched by high death rates, and world population grew very slowly. The increase in world population of the 1800s and early 1900s began as death rates started to decline in Europe and later in places of European settlement—the Americas, Oceania (Australia and New Zealand), and other colonial areas. The European-based increase was substantial by comparison with previous experience but moderate in relation to what has occurred recently.

The second population surge, concentrated in developing countries, began after World War II and is still going on. Their growth rates increased because improved living standards and the introduction of medical technology reduced death rates while birth rates stayed high.

UN Photo 162/69

Figure 1. Population Growth, 1750-2100: World, Less Developed Regions, and "European"/More Developed Regions



Source: "World Population in Transition," by Thomas W. Merrick with PRB staff. *Population Bulletin*, Vol. 41, No. 2, 1986, page 4.

Note: Three less developed regions = Africa, Asia (minus Japan), and Latin America; Two "European"/More developed regions = Europe, U.S.S.R., Japan, and Oceania (including Australia and New Zealand) combined and North America (Canada and the U.S.).

As shown in Figure 1, recent population growth in less developed regions has been far greater than any ever experienced in the "European" more developed regions shown in the figure—Europe, present-day USSR, Japan, Oceania, and North America. The less developed regions' population bases were already large at the beginning of the post-World War II surge. Their rates of natural increase (births minus deaths) surpassed any ever experienced in regions settled by Europeans because birth rates were initially higher and declines in death rates more rapid, compressing into a few years a population growth acceleration process that took decades in European countries. Since the less developed regions now make up more than three-quarters of world population, the result has been global population increase that dwarfs any in previous human demographic history.

Because of population momentum, the absolute size of world population will grow enormously over the next few decades. The U.N. current projections imply increases of more than 800 million people per decade in the 40 years from 1985 to 2025. More than 90 percent of this increase will occur in the less developed regions, mainly in Africa and Asia. Eventually, possibly after the middle of the next century, growth will subside and world population will stabilize at slightly more than 10 billion, more than twice the 1986 size of the earth's population.

The Population Debate: A New Consensus?

Does population growth retard economic development? Thomas R. Malthus, writing at the end of the 18th century, predicted that the world's population would grow at a faster rate than the resources needed for survival. He concluded that population growth has a negative effect on living standards. Technological advances that enabled more food to be grown per acre and workers to be more productive proved Malthus' theories wrong, at least in the industrialized countries.

The concerns emerged again in the 1950s. With the postwar boom it became evident that most of the world's income and wealth was in

the industrialized countries. Most of the population and potential for population growth was in the developing countries. Researchers, using computerized economic models and population projections, showed how rapid population growth would slow down the growth of per capita income by lowering the amount of investment a country was able to make in each of its workers. Their main policy message was that if developing countries were to improve living standards, population growth rates would have to be reduced. Neo-Malthusianism, as this view has been called, was the rationale for governments such as the U.S. to channel foreign aid funds to family planning programs in developing countries.

Not everyone has agreed with the neo-Malthusian view, and the question of how population growth affects development remains controversial. At the 1974 World Population Conference in Bucharest, many LDC delegations challenged the idea that family planning was necessary for development. Nationalistic and Marxist ideologies were reflected in assertions that obstacles such as the unequal distribution of the world's income rather than population growth, cause underdevelopment. However, LDC leaders became much more supportive of family planning in the decade following the Bucharest conference. Some countries that had been vocal critics in Bucharest, notably China, were leading supporters of family planning activities by the time of the next world population conference in Mexico City in 1984.

Much of the impetus for the Mexico meeting came from LDCs. Ironically, the U.S., whose advocacy of family planning had been challenged in 1974, was the country that went against the mainstream at the 1984 meeting. The U.S. delegation led a movement to exclude abortion from family planning programs and took a position of conservative skepticism regarding the adverse effects of population growth. It urged governments to rely on the free market system, rather than government involvement in economic and population matters, to slow population growth.

The U.S. stance at the Mexico conference reflected election-year politics as well as growing criticism in the U.S. of the neo-Malthusian perspective. A number of economists were critical of models that produced dire results when projected rises in population were matched against resources and the environment. The most recent such models were the *Limits to Growth* report of the Club of Rome, published in 1972, and *The Global 2000 Report* to the President of the United States in 1980.

Growth optimists criticized the limits-to-growth models, arguing that they ignore the role of markets in bringing population, resources, and the environment back into balance. They cited evidence that prices of resources such as oil have fallen rather than risen over the long run. They point out that human ingenuity has developed resource-saving (or substituting) inventions in response to shortages created by population growth. In their optimistic view, population growth is a stimulus, not a deterrent, to economic advancement.

The political and academic criticism of neo-Malthusian views has stirred renewed interest in the question of whether and how rapid population growth affects the economic growth of less developed countries. In 1983 the National Research Council of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences (NAS) commissioned a panel of experts to review scientific evidence on these issues.

The findings of the panel reflect a new consensus that appears to be emerging. They concluded that in general, slower population growth is a positive factor in achieving economic development, although they identified a few positive aspects of population growth, for example, its role in stimulating conservation. However, the report repeatedly stresses that rapid population growth can aggravate the ill effects of a variety of policy failures, including overemphasis on urban areas at the expense of rural areas, food subsidies that distort agricultural markets, and inadequate management of "common property" such as air and water.

This consensus is cautious about broad generalizations that blame rapid population growth for all development problems. But while it acknowledges that rapid population is not the root cause of underdevelopment, it emphasizes that population growth cannot be ignored when dealing with the complex problems facing developing countries.

"Questions of population cannot be examined in isolation, as distinct from all the others which, taken together, determine the greater or lesser degree of economic and social development. They must necessarily be considered within the broader scope of political and economic projects that take into account the desires and needs of society in all areas."

–João Baptista de Oliveira Figueiredo,
Former President of Brazil

Understanding the Factors that Slow Population Growth in LDCs

In the 1960s and 1970s, international financial assistance to LDC family planning programs increased substantially. The aid effort was based on the assumption that efforts to reduce fertility would be as effective as those made to reduce mortality. When fertility did not decline as expected, dozens of social science research studies were undertaken during the 1970s and early 1980s to better understand reproductive behavior and to measure the impact of family planning programs. Factors that directly affect the physical aspects of reproduction—contraceptive use and marriage—were studied, as were factors that affect reproduction indirectly by creating a desire for smaller families—for example, job opportunities and education levels.

Factors that Affect Childbearing Directly

Researchers identified four factors that directly affect childbearing:

1. Age at marriage: The younger women marry, the earlier they are likely to begin bearing children and thus the more children they might have. Earlier and much more widespread marriage explains why birth rates in LDCs before recent declines were much higher than they were in Europe at the start of the fertility decline there. Increased education and job opportunities for women help increase age at marriage and reduce fertility. Efforts to raise the age at marriage through legislation have not been particularly successful.
2. Breastfeeding: Breastfeeding lengthens a woman's period of natural infertility after a birth and thus can increase the interval before the next pregnancy and reduce overall family size, even if no contraception is used. Breastfeeding in South Asia and much of sub-Saharan Africa, where very few women use contraception, has kept fertility rates from being even higher than they are.
3. Abortion: Induced abortion has lowered fertility in LDCs but by how much is hard to say. Even in the many countries where abortion is legal to varying degrees, women are reluctant to admit in surveys that they have had an abortion. In Cuba and Korea, where it has been measured, abortion has contributed to fertility decline. Illegal abortion, thought to be widely prevalent in LDCs, is a major health problem for women because of infection and side effects.
4. Contraceptive use: Increased contraceptive use has been by far the most important of the factors leading to fertility declines in developing countries. Research has determined that it explains 90 percent of the decline in fertility in 31 countries. Indirect factors, particularly easier access to contraceptives and increased motivation for smaller families, in turn, explain most of the rise in contraceptive use, and hence fertility declines where they have occurred.

Factors that Affect Childbearing Indirectly

As mentioned above, motivation and easier access to contraceptives, explain the use of contraceptives and thus affect fertility indirectly.

Access: Depending on the method they use, couples require information, medical assistance, and supplies in order to control fertility. Family planning services are supplied through private physicians, pharmacies and other commercial outlets, private or publicly organized family planning programs, and/or incorporated into existing health services. Increased spending on family planning by governments and foreign donors has increased the flow of supplies and services, improved the effectiveness of delivery systems, and promoted research on more effective and culturally acceptable contraceptive methods.

Motivation: Use of contraceptives depends on the motivation of couples to space or limit births. This motivation sometimes—as in sub-Saharan Africa today—reflects a desire to improve the health of mothers and their children. More often it reflects a conscious effort to gain the social and economic benefits associated with smaller families. Research now shows that the links between social and economic development and desire to control fertility are complex and often difficult to quantify.

Factors that change the traditional roles of women and *improve women's status* are among the most important in explaining shifts to small families. Of these, increased *education* plays the most powerful role. Education can open doors to employment opportunities outside the home, and change women's aspirations. It can increase their chances of knowing how to control fertility and to take better care of children so that fewer children die and thus fewer births are needed to achieve a given family size. Economic research finds that education increases the value of women's time. As their time becomes more valuable, they start to substitute other activities, such as work outside the home, for full-time child rearing.

Education also plays a role in costs and benefits of raising children. A society's shift to small families occurs when parents begin to invest more in their children—mainly through increased schooling—than children contribute to the family through child labor, care for aged parents, and other traditional benefits of large families. This reversal occurs in response to such changes as *shifts from the extended to the nuclear family* as the basic economic unit, increasing *urbanization* and *industrialization*, and *rising family incomes*.

This helps explain why when incomes rise people tend to have smaller rather than larger families. Once parents have more money and time to "invest" in children's educa-

Doremus Porter Novelli

Egyptian woman receives family planning counseling as part of a private contraceptive social marketing program.

tion, for example, they tend to choose quality over quantity—having fewer children but spending more on schooling per child.

Child survival is also associated with rising income and reduced fertility. In low-income countries where both fertility and mortality are high, many children die before reaching adulthood. Parents who want children for family labor and security in old age often anticipate the loss of children by having more than would be needed if all survived. As living standards improve, more children do in fact survive. As more children survive, contraceptives can be used to help parents have fewer children. Contraceptive use also helps reduce child death by allowing parents to space births further apart. Pregnancies less than two years apart leave a mother's body too little time to recuperate and often lead to sickly infants.

Does the access to family planning supplies and information lead to fertility declines or does social and economic development motivate the desire for small families? Demographers Robert Lapham and Parker Mauldin tackled this question recently, examining the link between contraceptive use, family planning programs and socioeconomic setting in 73 LDCs. Their study found that the strength of a country's family planning programs and its socioeconomic setting both affect levels of contraceptive use, but their *joint* effect is much greater than the effect of either alone. Therefore, a family planning program is most successful after gains have been made in raising literacy, lowering infant mortality, increasing incomes, etc.

NFB

Rapid population growth further burdens countries which must import food.

New Issues Facing World Leaders

Before the world's total population stabilizes (when births equal deaths), it is quite possible that some individual countries will continue to grow while others lose population indefinitely through natural decrease (more deaths than births). This prospect raises important questions about international demographic interrelationships. With jet-age transportation and electronic communication, economic and social interdependence of nations is greater than ever before and likely to increase in the future. Areas with slow or no population growth will not be able to isolate themselves from neighbors' population pressures.

Politically, the most sensitive area is *migration*, particularly for low-growth areas close to high-growth areas: Europe with North Africa and the Middle East, the U.S. with Caribbean Basin countries. Immigration from these neighboring regions is already a concern in Europe and the U.S. Europe has placed much tighter controls on immigration and the U.S. is moving in this direction. But countering these efforts are growing pressures that stimulate emigration from countries.

Trade and financial relationships also channel the effects of internal population pressures across international borders. Young adult age groups are growing fastest in many LDCs. This means abundant labor and low wages which help keep manufactured goods from many LDCs cheap and stimulate international trade. This is one advantage of rapid population growth for LDCs. But it is a problem for their trading partners who industrialized earlier and now have industries that must make painful adjustments in order to compete.

Population pressures complicate the *efforts of LDCs to pay off accumulated debts*. The spending limits the International Monetary Fund requires as a condition of its continued financial support are often in conflict with demands for social services generated by rapid population growth. Leaders of many LDCs are grappling with choices between meeting social debts to their own populations and interest payments to foreign creditors.

The choices are particularly difficult for countries that must also *import food* for rapidly growing populations. They must maintain their international credit ratings in order to import, but under conditions that leave little latitude for dealing with their people's social needs. Their choices will affect the stability of international banking system and ultimately, the holdings of investors in developed and developing countries alike.

"Too many, too close, too early, and too late pregnancies are a major cause of maternal, infant, and childhood mortality and morbidity."
—International Conference on Population, Mexico City, 1984

The pace of the transition to low fertility can create *new problems*. An extreme example of this is China, which has pursued a one-child-per-family policy since 1979 after several decades of high fertility. This will mean that a large proportion of the population will reach 65 in the early 2000s and there will be a much smaller group to provide care for them, which in China traditionally has been a family responsibility for the younger adult generation. Chinese officials appear to be easing up on the one-child policy, at least partly in recognition of this and other imbalances created.

Many countries will face increasing proportions of *elderly* persons as their fertility declines. Most industrialized countries, with 10 to 15 percent of their populations now aged 65 and older, already face something of China's problem of who will care for the elderly. Younger immigrants to countries with ag-

ing populations represent one alternative to supplying care for the aged and filling other jobs that have until recently been occupied by younger groups in those countries. But this option, like immigration, generally raises a host of political issues for both the receiving and sending countries.

Conclusion

World population is on the path toward stabilization. Response to population growth between now and the time stabilization occurs will shape the kind of world that future generations share. Basic living standards for large segments of the world's people hang in the balance. The impact will be greatest in less developed countries, but more developed countries will find it difficult to insulate themselves from the process, even if they try. Pessimists feel that population growth is frustrating less developed countries' efforts to raise living standards. They see ominous signs that political strife and economic chaos of poor countries will spill over into more developed countries. Those who take a more optimistic view see important signs of positive change and important precedents for change in the history of today's industrialized countries. Ultimately, history will provide answers to the many questions about the impact on economic growth and social development of population increases of such magnitudes.

Global Population Trends: Challenges Facing World Leaders is part of the, "Population in Perspective: A Guide to World Population Issues for Model U.N. Participants" kit produced by the Population Reference Bureau, Inc., October 1986. It was compiled and edited by Paola Scommegna based on the Population Reference Bureau's *Population Bulletin* (Vol. 41, No. 2) "World Population in Transition," by Thomas W. Merrick, 1986. The opening quiz was based on an address by Stephen Viederman, then-Deputy Chief of Information and External Relations at the U.N. Fund for Population Activities.

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GLOSSARY OF POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT TERMS

Birth Rate (or Crude Birth Rate). The annual number of births per 1,000 population. Not to be confused with the "growth rate."

Death Rate (or Crude Death Rate). The annual number of deaths per 1,000 population.

Demography. The scientific study of human populations, including their size, composition, distribution, density, growth, and other demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, and the causes and consequences of changes in these factors.

Dependency Ratio. The ratio of the economically dependent part (arbitrarily defined as those under 15 and over age 64) of the population to the productive part (those in the "working" ages of 15-64).

Developed Countries (or More Developed Countries). Those countries which have higher levels of per capita income, industrialization, and modernization. The "more developed" region of the world, according to the United Nations, includes all of Europe, Canada, the United States, Australia, Japan, New Zealand and the Soviet Union.

Developing Countries (or Less Developed Countries). Those countries which have lower levels of per capita income, industrialization, and modernization.

Doubling Time. The number of years required for a population of an area to double its present size, given the current rate of population growth. The estimate for "doubling time" is not intended to forecast the actual doubling of any population.

Growth Rate. The rate at which a population is increasing (or decreasing) in a given year due to natural increase and net migration (immigration minus emigration), expressed as a percentage of the base population.

Immigrant. A person who is admitted into a country to reside there permanently.

Infant Mortality Rate. The annual number of deaths to infants under one year of age per 1,000 live births in a given year.

Life Expectancy. The average number of years a person can be expected to live under current mortality conditions. Most commonly cited as life expectancy at birth.

Migration. A change of residence which is intended to be permanent and which involves crossing political boundaries. It may be international or internal.

Natural Increase. The surplus (or deficit) of births over deaths in a population in a given time period.

Population Momentum (or Momentum of Growth). The tendency for population growth to continue beyond the time that replacement level fertility has been achieved because of a relatively high concentration of people in the childbearing ages.

Population Projection. Computation of future changes in population numbers, given certain assumptions about future trends in the rates of fertility, mortality, and migration. Demographers often issue low, medium, and high projections of the

same population, based on different assumptions on how these rates will change in the future.

Pronatalist Policy. The policy of a government, society, or social group to increase population growth by attempting to raise the number of births.

Refugee. A person forced to leave his or her country and unable to return because of persecution on account of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion.

Replacement Level Fertility. The level of fertility at which couples replace themselves, that is, a total fertility rate of 2.1 children per family (2 children to replace the parents and .1 child to account for deaths). It can be as high as 2.5 in countries with high mortality.

Total Fertility Rate (TFR). The average number of children that would be born to each women if each were to live through her childbearing lifetime bearing children at the same rate as women of those ages actually did in a given year.

Urban Population. The percentage of total population living in areas termed urban by that country.

Zero Population Growth. A population in equilibrium with a growth rate of zero, achieved when births plus immigration equal deaths plus emigration.

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The State of the World's Women 1985.

Fertility and the Family: Proceedings of the Expert Group Meeting on Fertility and Family. ST/ESA/SER.A/88, 1983.

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Population, Resources, Environment and Development: Proceedings of the Expert Group on Population, Resources, Environment and Development. ST/ESA/SER.A/90, 1983.

Order United Nations publications or request further information from: United Nations Publications, Sales Section, Room DC2-0853, New York, N.Y. 10017.

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Books

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Great Decisions '85. Foreign Policy Association, 205 Lexington Ave., New York, N.Y. 10016, 1985. 96 pp.

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Reflections on Population, by Rafael M. Salas. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, N.Y., 1985. 336 pp. Contact the UNFPA for information on this publication (220 E. 42nd St., New York, N.Y. 10017).

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Economic Development in the Third World, by Michael Todaro. Longman Inc., 1560 Broadway, New York, N.Y. 10036, 1985.

Articles

"Global Population Growing by More Than 200,000 a Day," *U.S. News and World Report*. July 23, 1984, pp. 52-53.

"The Population Debate," *World Press Report*. October 1984, pp. 37-52.

"Population—Action for a New Decade," *U.N. Chronicle*, Vol. XXI, No. 6, 1984, pp. i-xlviii.

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"1983 Population Report Points to Remarkable Record," *U.N. Chronicle*. Vol. XX, No. 9, 1983, pp. 82-86.

"The Population Factor in Africa," *Science*. November 16, 1984, pp. 5-8+.

"Population and Health," *World Health*. June 1984, pp. 2-29.

"A Global Accounting," *Environment*. July/August 1985, pp. 6-11+.

Audio-Visual Resources

From the Population Reference Bureau:

"The Human Race," 1985. 27 min., ½" VHS.

Eric McGraw, director of Population Concern, interviews government representatives of developed and developing countries on the issue of rapid population growth. The interviews were conducted at the International Population Conference held in Mexico City in 1984.

"A Finite World," 1982. 60 min., ¾" U-matic.

A documentary exploring the world population situation in seven Asian countries—Singapore, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Thailand, India, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka—and three African countries—Kenya, Egypt, and Tunisia. Produced by Turner Broadcasting Systems, the program focuses on "the crisis situation presented by rapid population growth, and the manner in which each country has come to grips with it."

"Indonesia: Family Planning First," 1978. 23 min., 16 mm.

A description of the village family planning program in Java and Bali which emphasizes how family planning has been integrated into a rural, traditional and relatively poor society.

"Mexico in the Year 2000," 1979. 12 min., 16 mm.

Produced in cooperation with the Mexican government, this film describes the rapid increase in the population of Mexico since 1900 and the difficulties Mexico will have in providing jobs, food, education and housing for the population in the year 2000.

"Sri Lanka: Past, Present and People," 1980. 37 min., 16 mm.

This beautiful film describes Sri Lanka's history and population dynamics.

"Refugee Women," 1980. 30 min., 16 mm.

The film focuses on three groups of refugee women: Asian women in a refugee camp; Chilean women who have resettled in Sweden; and African women in a Somalian refugee camp. These women face common problems which set them apart from male refugees—poorer nutrition and health, lower levels of education and fewer legal rights.

These films may be rented from the Population Reference Bureau for a rental fee of $10.00 per film, video, or filmstrip.

From the United Nations:

For a full list of current United Nations films available for rental or purchase, write to: United Nations, Radio and Visual Services, Department of Public Information, Room 808, New York, N.Y. 10017. Telephone (212)754-6939.

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